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ABSTRACT

A series of 20 fact sheets is provided giving basic information on specific subjects of interest to those working with handicapped and gifted children. The fact sheets, developed by the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children during fiscal year 1979, are designed in question/answer format and have resource references. Following are the topics of the fact sheets: career education, how a parent group can effect legislation for the gifted and talented, the special education job market, federal resources for special education, assessment of minority students, cultural values and motivation, educational rights of American Indian and Alaska native handicapped children, special problems of handicapped minority students, multicultural education and the exceptional child, self identity and the culturally diverse child, affirmative action for the handicapped, reaching handicapped children in their early years, the argument for early intervention, the IEP (individualized educational plan) review, parents' rights and responsibilities, privacy and confidentiality, adjudicated handicapped youth, responsibilities of regular classroom teachers for handicapped students, higher education for handicapped students, and bilingual education for exceptional children. (PHR)

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FACT SHEETS FROM THE ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON HANDICAPPED AND GIFTED CHILDREN

1979

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ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children
Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091

EC 121 327

To meet the increasing demand for information on current high interest topics and trends, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children develops an annual series of fact sheets as one of its user services products. The fact sheets are designed to present basic information on specific subjects following a question/answer format.

The twenty fact sheets in this series were produced during the FY 79 contract year. They have been compiled in a single document for convenient entry into ERIC.

CAREER EDUCATION

Fact Sheet

The career education movement has been heavily influenced by several emerging trends in today's society:

- A high rate of youth unemployment.
- Limited employable skills.
- Inadequate knowledge of available occupations among youth and adults.
- Limited decision making skills as well as little recognition of the values and rewards of work among the general population.

Dr. Sidney Mariand, former US Commissioner of Education, first introduced the concept of career education as a federal policy concern in 1971. Through his leadership and that of many others, there is now an Office of Career Education within the United States Office of Education under the direction of Dr. Kenneth Hoyt. This office is intended to promote the career education concept and thus aid in reversing the trends cited above.

There has been much discussion of career education, including how it can be used to assist exceptional individuals to prepare for roles as meaningful members of society. Much of this discussion has focused on career education serving as a major contributor in assisting students to cope with, adjust to, and create change for the world of today and tomorrow. This is because career education can help to serve as the link between education and work. Questions concerning career education are being asked by all segments of the population—educators, parents, administrators, school boards, members of the community, and students. The most commonly asked questions and their answers will serve as a starting point in the exploration of career education.

What is career education?

Career education can be defined as an effort aimed at refocusing education and the actions of the broader community in ways that will help individuals acquire and use the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for a meaningful, productive, and satisfying role in the world of work.

What is meant by "the world of work?"

The world of work can mean anything from being a homemaker or hospital volunteer to being a member of the professions, a public service employee, or a farmer. It is being a productive individual, whether for financial gain or self satisfaction.

How does career education differ from vocational education?

Although often confused with vocational education, career education's main thrust is on providing students with skills and attitudes necessary for coping with change: the basic academic skills; decision making, job seeking, job getting, and job holding skills; and good work habits which begin at the primary level and continue throughout adult life. Vocational education, on the other hand, is training for a specific occupation or cluster of closely related occupations which is primarily focused at the high school or community college level.

How can career education be presented—is it limited to academics?

Although career education is often applied to academic subjects such as English, math, science and social studies, it also has relevance in the arts and humanities, vocational, and physical education curricula.

Should career education be presented as an individual course?

Many advocates of career education recommend that the skills and attitudes students develop as a result of career education effort should *not* be packaged in a formal career education "course." Rather, the concept should be integrated into the curricula of existing courses. Specific examples would include a history class taking a field trip to a museum, a science class studying health career options, or having a guest lecturer discuss what it is like to be a basketball referee in a physical education class. Career education can also be provided through an experience based approach. This is accomplished by having a student spend a few hours a week on

a job site. An example would be a biology student receiving credit for work at a florist's shop or a zoo, an art student studying at a museum, or a history major studying at the archives.

Is career education necessary for handicapped students?

Absolutely. With the ever increasing number of identified handicapped students, it is important that they, too, receive not only an appropriate general education, but one which will allow them to be part of society to the maximum extent feasible. Therefore, career education should be integrated into each handicapped child's individualized education program. In addition to career education experiences, handicapped youngsters should be assisted by guidance and counseling personnel.

How can career education be implemented for handicapped students?

Under federal law, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, it is guaranteed that a free, appropriate education be provided for all handicapped children regardless of the degree of physical or mental handicap. Through an individualized education program (IEP), it is possible to establish annual career education goals and short term objectives which are appropriate for each handicapped child.

How can career education be used to meet the needs of the gifted and talented student?

Career education can serve as a vehicle for a more individualized, self directed means of learning. Small workshops and laboratory classes can be used to provide specialized assistance for the gifted student. The method of discovery and inquiry can be especially productive for the gifted and talented. This can be accomplished in a number of ways:

- Independent study.
- College based mentorship programs for secondary students.
- Community based internships.
- Guest speakers.

How can I find out what is going on in my state in career education?

A good first step is to contact the state office or department of education. There is a career education office located in every state. For more specific information, contact the national headquarters of professional organizations in your field of interest.

RESOURCES

Brolin, D. E. *Life centered career education: A competency based approach.* Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1978.

Davis, S. & Ward, M. *Vocational education of handicapped students—A guide for policy development.* Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1978.

Hoyt, K. B. *A primer for career education.* (Monograph). Washington DC: US Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, undated.

Hoyt, K. B. & Hebeler, J. R. *Career education for gifted and talented students.* Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing Company, 1974.

Kokaska, C. (Ed.). *Career Development for Exceptional Individuals, 1* (1), Spring, 1978.

L'Abate, L. & Curtis, L. T. *Teaching the exceptional child.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1975.

Prell, B. S. *Career education and the teaching/learning process.* (Monograph). Washington DC: US Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, undated.

US Congress. Public Law 94-142, Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975.

US Congress, Senate, Committee on Human Resources. *Career Education Incentive Act.* (Report No. 95-142, Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975.

Agencies

ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston VA 22091

ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education
The Ohio State University
1960 Kenny Road
Columbus OH 43210

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HOW A PARENT GROUP CAN EFFECT LEGISLATION FOR THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

Is it possible for parents to effect the development and subsequent enactment of legislation for the gifted and talented?

Yes; in fact, most of the existing state legislation for the gifted and talented was greatly influenced by parents. In addition, the Education of Gifted and Talented Children's Act of 1978, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1978 (Public Law 95-561), was formulated with input and support from individual parents and parent groups across the country.

How can parents of the gifted and talented effect legislation?

The best and most effective way parents can influence legislation for their children is through initiating and maintaining open and constant communication with their elected representatives. Elected officials represent all constituents, not just special interest groups. Communication to a representative should deal with pressing legislative issues and should include information that serves to clarify and nurture a given position. The most effective parent groups are those that are well informed about the issues surrounding the education of gifted and talented children, and can furnish specific content information to elected representatives at all levels of government.

What strategies can parents use to effect legislation?

Draft a bill. A parent group can draft a bill sensitive to the needs of all gifted and talented children throughout their state. Once the bill is drafted, the group can then seek a sponsor from among their elected representatives.

Get help from professional advocates. Parents can contact a professional advocate organization for technical assistance in determining a direction and selecting a set of strategies to influence legislation.

Write letters. Writing letters is an activity that can be undertaken easily by individuals or groups. Letters help officials identify voter sentiment on major issues. The content of a letter should be explanatory without being wordy. Legislators appreciate letters that are well thought out and clearly represent a particular point of view. While many letters may be similar, form letters should not be used, as they carry little weight.

Make telephone calls. This strategy is useful for short range activities and immediate input. When telephoning a representative's office, callers should identify themselves and their affiliation such as parent of a gifted and talented child, or member of (name of parent organization). If the legislator is out of the office, speak with a member of the staff. All information will be forwarded to the legislator.

Send a wire. Sending a wire encouraging representative support is most effective on the day a bill is due to be acted upon. Wires should be short and to the point. A good rule of thumb is no more than three typewritten lines.

Visit your representative. Visiting a representative's office requires a greater time and energy commitment than some of the other strategies but it is worthwhile because it allows the representative to personally identify an issue with a person or group.

Testify. Parents should offer testimony at scheduled legislative hearings to present a case for gifted and talented children.

Additional strategies that can be used include:

- Inviting legislators to visit classrooms or programs for the gifted and talented.
- Inviting legislators to speak or attend an organization's banquet.
- Making awards to legislators who have publicly advocated for the gifted and talented.
- Publicizing all relevant activities involving legislators in local newspapers and on radio and television.

This fact sheet is based in part on information presented in the *Political Action Network (PAN) Handbook*, prepared by the Governmental Relations Unit of The Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, Virginia. For more information and the name of your state's PAN representative, contact your CEC state federation or a local CEC chapter.

RESOURCES

Higgins, S. T., *Special education administrative policies manual.* Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1977, $27.50.

Kroth, R. L., & Scholl, G. T., *Getting schools involved with parents.* Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1978, $5.00.

The nation's commitment to the education of gifted and talented children and youth—Summary of findings from a 1977 survey of states and territories. Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1978, $6.50.

Weintraub, F. J., Abeson, A. R., Ballard, J., & Lavor, M. L. *Public policy and the education of exceptional children.* Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1976, $13.95.

Prepared by John Grossi, Director, the Gifted and Talented Policy Information Project, Evaluation, Planning and Development Unit, The Council for Exceptional Children.

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THE SPECIAL EDUCATION JOB MARKET

What are the current personnel needs in special education?

Public Law 94-142 (the Education for All Handicapped Children Act) requires that every handicapped child receive the special education and related services that are necessary for that child to reach his or her full potential. This requirement presents the enormous administrative challenge of making available a wide array of services. A fundamental step in the provision of such services is the preparation of necessary personnel. Because the law requires that handicapped children be educated in the least restrictive environment that can appropriately meet their needs and because related services to support the special education program must also be provided, the personnel required to carry out the law reach far beyond the field of special education.

In addition to the critical shortage of special education teachers, there is now a dire need for such personnel as regular teachers with special education skills, speech therapists, psychologists, school social workers, audiologists, occupational and physical therapists, and teacher aides.

As part of their first P.L. 94-142 Annual Program Plan, states were asked to identify personnel available and needed. The states estimated that an additional 65,000 special education teachers would be needed for the 1978-79 school year and 85,000 for 1979-80. However, higher education institutions are presently producing only 20,000 new special educators a year. Other personnel needs include an additional 31,000 teacher aides, 5,000 psychologists, and 3,000 speech pathologists and audiologists.

Each year during its annual convention, The Council for Exceptional Children provides a personnel recruitment service. At the 1979 annual CEC convention, over 1,000 notices of positions available were posted. An informal survey of these posted positions revealed that 76% of the jobs came under the following nine categories:

School psychologists/psychometrists	18%
Teachers of the learning disabled	11%
Resource teachers	10%
Speech-language pathologists	10%
Teachers of the emotionally disturbed/ behavior disordered	10%
Teachers of the mentally retarded	9%
Special education teachers (general)	3%
Teachers of the visually handicapped	3%
Physical therapists	2%

The same survey showed that 57% of the jobs posted were available in the following seven states:

Indiana	11%
Iowa	11%
Arizona	10%
Kansas	7%
California	6%
Illinois	6%
Wyoming	6%

Recent increases in federal appropriations for education of the gifted (Public Law 95-561, the Education Amendments of 1978) will result in an increased need for professionals in this field.

Where can I get inservice training in special education?

With the growing trend toward education of handicapped children in the least restrictive environment, there is a need for regular class teachers who have additional training in special education. Consequently, many states are now requiring courses in special education in order to qualify for state certification as a regular class teacher.

If you are already certified to teach, your career possibilities could be enhanced by some special education training. For information on inservice training, contact your state or local director of special education or the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, Division of Personnel Preparation, OE/BEH, Donohoe 4805, 400 Maryland Avenue S.W., Washington DC 20202.

Where are the teacher training programs?

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children offers a series of fact sheets listing professional training programs in special education. The programs are listed by state. Information provided includes the name and address of the college or university, areas of study (such as special education administration, mental retardation, early childhood), and degree levels.

To obtain information on programs in your area of interest, contact the ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children, 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091. Ask for the free Professional Training Programs Fact Sheet and specify your geographical area.

How can I find a job?

To find out about positions available in a specific area, contact the state or local director of special education.

For an overview of positions available throughout the United States, check the latest issue of the appropriate professional journal. The CEC journal, *Exceptional Children*, lists professional opportunities from all special education fields. More specific listings appear in journals such as *American Annals of the Deaf*, *ASHA*, and *Mental Retardation*.

Another source of job information is the personnel recruitment at CEC's annual convention. Over 1,000 jobs were posted at the 1979 convention in Dallas, Texas. The convention will be held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania in April, 1980.

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FEDERAL RESOURCES FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION

What are some of the areas supported by federal funds?

Federal funds are available to support programs and research in the following areas: administration and governance; adult education; alcohol and drug abuse; arts and culture; bilingual and bicultural education; career education; community education; curriculum; developmental disabilities; early childhood; evaluation; exceptional children; gifted and talented; health and mental health; library and supplemental services; media services; minority education; nutrition; post secondary education; program development; rehabilitation; research and development; science education; severely handicapped; social security; student loans; Title 1; and training and vocational education.

Who can apply for federal funds?

Specifically targeted federal funds may be directed to one or more of the following groups: state education agencies; local education agencies; individuals; institutions of higher education; nonprofit organizations and agencies; profit making organizations; and public agencies.

What types of support can an applicant receive?

- *Financial assistance*, which usually involves the actual payment of funds to the grantee.
- *Technical assistance*, which provides training, information, advice, or counseling services to a funded applicant.
- *Direct service*, which provides benefits such as social security payments from a federal agency.

What kinds of financial assistance does the government provide?

- *Grants*, which transfer dollars, services, property, or anything of value to an individual or agency for the purpose of supporting or stimulating activities authorized by federal statutes. Once a grant is awarded the federal government does not usually involve itself in the implementation of the project.
- *Contracts*, which are used by the federal government to procure needed goods or services. For example, the government may contract with an agency to develop an information package about a new federal mandate. The government specifies exactly what it requires and the agency delivers the finished product according to the contract.
- *Cooperative agreements*, which are similar to grants except that the federal government plays a more active role in the ongoing project.

How do government agencies announce the availability of grants, contracts, or other types of support?

When a federal agency requires the services of an outside organization it generally places a grant announcement or a request for proposal (RFP) in either the *Federal Register* or *Commerce Business Daily*. Government agencies with large scale funding efforts may produce their own booklets describing available resources.

Are federal funds ever available for proposals that have not been requested by a government agency?

A limited amount of money is available for unsolicited field initiated proposals. These are proposals that come from the field rather than from a federal agency. The work scope of an unsolicited proposal must be consistent with the mission of the funding agency.

What federal agencies support programs for exceptional individuals?

The majority of funds supporting all aspects of education for handicapped and gifted students are available from:

US Department of HEW
Office of Education
Bureau of Education for the Handicapped
400 Maryland Avenue, SW
Washington, DC 20202

The following agencies also direct at least a portion of their funds toward programs for exceptional individuals:

US Department of HEW
Office of Human Development Services
Rehabilitation Services Administration
230 Independence Ave., SW
Washington, DC 20005

US Department of HEW
Office of Human Development Services
National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect
PO Box 1182
Washington, DC 20201

Department of the Interior
Bureau of Indian Affairs
18th & C Sts., NW
Washington, DC 20245

US Department of HEW
Office of Human Development Services
Developmental Disabilities Office
Office of the Secretary
Washington, DC 20201

US Department of HEW
Office of Education
Office of Career Education
7th & D Streets, SW (ROB #3)
Washington, DC 20202

US Department of HEW
Office of Education
Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education
400 Maryland Ave., SW (ROB #3)
Washington, DC 20202

RESOURCES

Catalog of Federal Domestic Assistance. Available from: Executive Office of the President, Office of Management and Budget, Washington, DC 20503.

Getting the Buck to Stop Here: A Guide to Federal Resources for Special Needs, by Diane L. Goltz and Michael M. Behrmann. Available from: The Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, VA 22091.

1979 Guide to OE Programs. Available from: US Department of HEW, Office of Education, Washington, DC 20202 (Stock No. 017-080-01985-0).

Federal Assistance for Programs Serving the Handicapped. Available from: US Department of HEW, Office for Handicapped Individuals, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Human Development, Washington, DC 20201.

The Guide to Federal Resources for the Developmentally Disabled. Available from: Federal Programs Information and Assistance Project, 1522 K Street, NW, Washington, DC 20005.

Clearinghouse on the Handicapped . . . Directory of National Information Sources. Available from: US Department of HEW, Office for Handicapped Individuals, Washington, DC 20201.

Commerce Business Daily. Available from: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Federal Register. Available from: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Prepared by Diane L. Goltz, Michael M. Behrmann, and Jean Nazzaro.

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ASSESSMENT OF MINORITY STUDENTS

What are the purposes of assessment?

Without systematic assessment it is impossible to make sound educational decisions. First, assessment data are used to determine whether a student is eligible to receive special education. Second, assessment information is gathered to describe a student's present skills and abilities so that an appropriate education program, based on that data, can be developed. Third, periodic evaluation is done to find out how well a student is moving through his or her specially designed, individualized program.

Does assessment mean more than testing?

Prior to the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, Public Law 94-142, many school districts determined a student's eligibility for special education placement on the basis of a single IQ score. A close look at those special education placements, especially in classes for the educable mentally retarded, revealed that a disproportionate number of students were members of minority groups. Often children were originally referred for special education because they failed to meet the middle class expectations of their teachers. Standard batteries of tests that had been normed on White middle class children were then used to determine the minority youngster's IQ and academic achievement. Little attention was paid to the student's adaptive behavior; medical examinations were required only in severe cases; and no special accommodations were required for communicating effectively with children who were not fluent in English. It is no wonder that many culturally diverse students were mislabeled.

Today the law requires that multiple procedures be used to identify handicapped children and that a multidisciplinary team assess all areas related to the child's disability. It is possible that an assessment may be done without every using an actual test. In spite of these protections in evaluation procedures, there is still a great deal of room for bias to occur.

Where may biases occur in the assessment process?

Teachers and specialists involved in the assessment process unintentionally may have personal prejudices toward specific youngsters or groups of youngsters. This could affect the way assessment data is interpreted.

Even when special care is taken in the selection of assessment materials and procedures, biases may occur because of language or cultural differences.

What problems exist in assessing students with limited English language skills?

One of the major problems in assessing bilingual and limited English speaking students is determining the student's overall language proficiency. Many students who are classified as bilingual are actually unable to function adequately in either English or their native language. These youngsters would be described more correctly as language deficient than bilingual and may respond like children with hearing and communication handicaps. Common problems associated with assessing students who lack proficiency in English include:

- Failure to understand either written or oral directions.
- Failure to understand vocabulary or syntax of test items.
- Inability to give appropriate verbal responses.
- Failure to discriminate between similar sounds not present in the youngster's native language or dialect.

What problems may be encountered in assessing youngsters from racial minority groups?

Some racial groups are prone to have certain types of physical disabilities. Teachers, specialists, and often the family itself may be unfamiliar with these potential problems. Children from economically deprived families often miss the regular medical checkups needed for the detection of physically based disorders.

What problems arise because of ethnic differences?

Differences in values and style between students and diagnosticians may significantly affect the way the student's behavior is interpreted. A student who is acting with respect toward an authority may appear to the examiner as passive or

timid. A youngster who values cooperation over competition may be described by a teacher as unmotivated. A student may be demonstrating enthusiastic support according to his standards, but may be viewed by the principal as aggressive or disrespectful. It is important to understand the student's family and cultural group before choosing assessment procedures or interpreting results.

Common problems associated with assessing students from different ethnic backgrounds include:

- Failure of students to pay attention to the demands of timed tests.
- Lack of familiarity with information items related to the majority culture.
- Reluctance to participate for fear of embarrassment to the family.
- Failure of certain questions to make sense outside the context of the majority culture.

RESOURCES

Bilingual Education Service Center, 500 South Dwyer Avenue, Arlington Heights IL 60005.

Jones, Reginald L. (Ed.). *Mainstreaming and the minority child.* Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1976.

Oakland, Thomas (Ed.). *Psychological and educational assessment of minority children.* New York: Brunner/Mazel, Inc., 1977.

A Position Statement on Nonbiased Assessment of Culturally Different Children. Region 9 Task Group on Nonbiased Assessment. Includes a 10 page guide to nondiscriminatory assessment. Prepared by the Northeast Regional Resource Center, Hightstown NJ. Available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service P.O. Box 190, Arlington VA 22210. ED 132 831. Paper copy $1.82 plus postage; microfiche $.98 including postage.

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CULTURAL VALUES AND MOTIVATION

How successful have schools been so far in motivating minority students to complete their education?

The dropout rate for minority students is alarming. Garcia (1976) reported that 45% of all Mexican American youngsters drop out of school before completing the 12th grade, and the attrition rate for Native Americans is 55%. About 85% of the 800,000 students who drop out of school each year are Black, Hispanic, and White economically disadvantaged youngsters. In large cities the majority of the dropouts are poor Black youths whose values and attitudes are incongruent with those of the urban middle class culture. Many suffer from educational handicaps rooted in poverty, deprivation, discrimination, and environmental conditions over which they personally have little or no control (Jones, 1977).

Why are culturally diverse students often unmotivated in school?

For most middle class students school is a valued institution. Support and encouragement by parents and others help youngsters develop positive attitudes. School is generally viewed by the majority of students as a place where learning is a satisfying experience. School is also valued for the positive social interactions that take place among students and teachers.

Generally, education for individuals from the majority culture is directly related to later occupational success. In contrast, minority individuals often find that employment opportunities remain limited in spite of their efforts to complete an education. They find that their high school diploma has done little to enhance their standard of living. Disillusioned by the failure of education to improve their own lives, many minority group parents do not transmit the kind of encouragement and support children need to succeed in school. In fact, a number of minority group children may carry the hostility or dejection of their parents to the classroom. In such situations it is difficult to motivate students.

Why do middle class teachers and students from culturally diverse backgrounds sometimes find it difficult to relate to each other?

Minority group youngsters who come from homes or associate with peer groups that do not support the education system pose a particularly difficult problem. These students tend to resent the authority of teachers and chafe against a system they feel has been forced upon them. In these situations the teacher is at an extreme disadvantage because of the predetermined negative attitudes of the youngsters.

Children from a different ethnic background or a different social class will probably come to school with different values than those held by teachers from the majority culture. Many minority groups have values that are actually in conflict with those of the majority culture. When these values are exhibited as classroom behaviors, teachers often misinterpret the intentions.

What kinds of student behaviors can be misinterpreted as poor motivation?

White middle class values generally encourage competition, winning, and efforts to achieve status and prestige. While minority individuals may also appreciate status and prestige, some groups, including many Native Americans, emphasize instead the value of cooperative effort. Some Native American children have even been known to wait until all their classmates have finished an assignment before raising their hands in unison, thereby preventing anyone from suffering the embarrassment of being last. Many Mexican American students are taught by their parents that when they achieve competitively, it is at the expense of their peers. It is better, therefore, to avoid competition than to have someone else, perhaps a friend or relative, suffer from any advantages gained through competing.

Asian American children from traditional families are often taught not to speak in the presence of an adult unless spoken to. Many of these children find it difficult to volunteer answers to questions posed by the teacher to the entire class. These children will tend to respond only when the question is addressed directly to them. These specific behaviors, as well as many others not mentioned here, may mislead teachers into believing that the children lack motivation or interest in the school work.

What other variables contribute to the lack of motivation for minority group children?

Textbooks and other teaching materials are usually developed with the White middle class child as the target audience. Many of the materials tend to omit significant facts, distort historical perspectives, and treat minority people in stereotyped ways. Some teaching materials are simply not motivating or stimulating for minority children because these children can see little relevance to their own lives. When all the major characters in a reading primer are middle and upper middle class Whites, there may be little that a minority child, particularly one from a lower socioeconomic background, can relate to.

The basic principles for motivating all children apply to minority group children as well: material must be meaningful, purposeful, and have relevance for the child. If existing published materials do not meet the needs of these children adequately, they can be supplemented or replaced by teacher made materials.

In order to develop appropriate materials, teachers need to plan for children individually. A program should be based on the child's interests and the unique characteristics of the child's culture that can strengthen the youngster personally and enrich the class as a whole.

What should be done if a student's values are in conflict with those of the mainstream culture?

It is possible to interpret specific behaviors from a number of different perspectives. A boy who gives his classmate the answer to a problem is accused of cheating by the teacher, but he simply wanted to help his friend and save the other child from being embarrassed. A girl who stays home from school to take care of her younger brothers and sisters is listed as a truant, but she is merely fulfilling her expected family role. A youngster who helps himself to some fruit from a neighbor's tree on the way to school is accused of trespassing and stealing but he was taught that nature's bounty belongs to everyone. Exploring the reasons behind certain behaviors in terms of an individual's cultural perspective can eliminate many misunderstandings. However, when a student's behavior infringes on the rights of others, teachers have an obligation to intervene, even if the infraction stems from the youngster's cultural value system.

How can teachers deal directly with the issue of values?

In order to have a pluralistic society in which individuals can comfortably identify with their ethnic heritage and participate in the traditions of their cultural group without fear of discrimination, it is necessary for people to develop a better understanding of the underlying values held by each group. Only in recent years have people begun to articulate their personal values and share them with outsiders. Formerly, people were relatively unaware of the diversity of values held by different groups. Open discussions about values can enhance understanding and acceptance of others.

School-home relationships can be strengthened through home visits, more meaningful PTA activities, verbal reports to parents of pupil progress supplementing written report cards, and more involvement of school personnel in the community. Participation in the civic and religious life of the community can be an effective means of learning about and understanding cultural values.

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If you knew us better. Cassette album. Perspectives on education, learning styles, family, culture, and social values of different cultural groups. Contents: Eight cassettes; Conference proceedings, "Cultural Diversity and the Exceptional Child"; special topical issue on cultural diversity, *Exceptional Children,* May 1974; album guide; bibliography. Reston VA: The Council for Exceptional Children.

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EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS OF AMERICAN INDIAN AND ALASKA NATIVE HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

What special circumstances affect the education of Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children?

Historically, the special relationship between the federal government and the Indian tribes, as reflected in treaties, legislation, executive orders, and court rulings, has caused confusion among the states and federal agencies over their respective responsibilities for the education of Indian and Alaska Native children residing on reservations and in Alaska Native villages. More recently, the national policy of Indian self determination has encouraged Indian tribes and communities to operate their own educational programs. As a result of these practices and policies, Indian and Alaska Native children can be found attending public (state), Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), and tribal or Indian community controlled schools.

The existence of these various types of schools has often blurred jurisdictional responsibilities. Rather than guaranteeing service availability, it has allowed children, particularly those in need of special services, to fall between the cracks. Under such conditions, Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children can be overlooked or be considered the responsibility of some other agency and, consequently, receive no educational or specialized services.

How many Indian and Alaska Native children are there?

Handicapped children are defined by Public Law 94-142 as mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, or children with specific learning disabilities who, by reason thereof, require special education and related services. Using this definition, the BIA has reported that approximately 4,500 students attending its schools have been identified as handicapped. In addition, there are about 800 students who have been referred to institutions or private facilities for the handicapped by BIA Social Services.

In general, it has been extremely difficult to determine the precise number of Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children in the United States due to the different types of school systems enrolling these children. Based on a BIA school census figure of approximately 220,000 school age children residing on reservations and in Alaska Native villages, it has been estimated that there are more than 26,000 Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children in need of special education services.

What types of schools are Indian and Alaska Native children eligible to attend?

Approximately 72% of all children residing on reservations and in Alaska Native villages attend public schools, about 23% attend BIA schools, and 5% are in other schools. In many cases, more than one type of school can be found serving a single reservation or Alaska Native village.

While the Department of the Interior, through the BIA, annually operates approximately 190 day and boarding schools for eligible Indian students in 17 states, the BIA also contracts with Indian tribes and tribally recognized Indian groups who operate schools. In addition, the BIA can enter into agreements with a public school district for the operation of a cooperative school.

How are the educational rights of Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children protected?

Public Law 94-142 (the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975) guarantees all handicapped children a free, appropriate public education as of September 1, 1978. It is the responsibility of the state and its local education agencies to accord Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children residing within the jurisdiction of a local education agency all the rights and protections afforded their non-Indian counterparts. This means the provision of special education and related services including nondiscriminatory evaluation, individualized education programs, and placement in the least restrictive environment. At the same time, P.L. 94-142 also gives attention to Indian handicapped children on reservations or in Alaska Native villages served by elementary and secondary schools operated by the BIA. In keeping with legislative intent, the Secretary of the Interior must assure the provision of a free, appropriate education to all handicapped children served by BIA schools.

Public Law 93-112 (Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973) prohibits discrimination against handicapped children in programs and activities receiving federal financial assistance. With respect to preschool, elementary, and secondary

education programs and activities, the regulations that accompany Section 504 in almost all respects conform to the requirements of Public Law 94-142. Almost all public as well as tribal and Indian community controlled schools receive financial assistance through such federal programs as the Indian Education Act of 1972, Impact Aid (P.L. 874), and Titles I and VII of the Elementary and Secondary School Act. Thus, Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children are further assured a free, appropriate education even if they reside in a state that chooses not to participate under Public Law 94-142.

The Rehabilitation, Comprehensive Services, and Developmental Disabilities Amendments of 1978 expanded Section 504 of Public Law 93-112 to include programs and activities conducted by federal agencies such as the Department of the Interior. Agencies are further required to adopt regulations to end discrimination in their programs and activities. In the case of the Department of the Interior, this would require the development and adoption of regulations for BIA operated and contracted preschool, elementary, and secondary programs that guarantee the provision of appropriate special education services.

How are the rights of Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children protected when served by tribal and Indian community organizations?

The Indian Self-Determination and Educational Assistance Act (Public Law 93-638), as well as earlier policies, permits the BIA to contract with tribes and Indian community organizations for the operation of preschool, elementary, and secondary school programs. According to past BIA annual program plans, these contract schools also are to comply with the requirements of Public Law 94-142.

The Office of Indian Education, US Office of Education, also provides funds to tribal and Indian community organizations for delivering educational services to preschool and school age children. Because some of these Indian community schools do not receive funds from either BIA or the state, there is some question regarding their compliance with BIA or state standards. However, since they receive federal financial assistance, they must comply with the requirements of Section 504.

The Administration for Children, Youth and Families, Indian and Migrant Programs Division, funds more than 90 tribes and Indian groups to operate Head Start programs which presently serve approximately 13,[illegible] Indian and Alaska Native children age 3 through the age of compulsory school attendance. Head Start standards require that at least 10% of the enrollment opportunities in each Head Start program consist of children professionally diagnosed as handicapped. Moreover, Section 504 prohibits the outright exclusion of a handicapped child meeting the eligibility requirements of a preschool program supported with federal funds such as Head Start.

Who is responsible for serving Indian and Alaska Native handicapped children on reservations or in Alaska Native villages?

Public local and intermediate educational agencies are responsible for identifying, evaluating, and providing special education and related services to all handicapped children residing within their boundaries. This responsibility also applies in instances where such local school districts have boundaries that encompass all or part of an Indian reservation or Alaska Native village. In the event that BIA operated or contracted schools exist within the service area of a public school system, handicapped students enrolled in these schools are guaranteed the same rights as students attending the local public school.

Problems arise when more than one type of school exists in the same geographic area. In many areas, confusion exists over who is responsible to identify out of school children who may be handicapped and in need of special education services. To overcome this difficulty, some states and BIA administrative offices have developed cooperative agreements regarding their respective responsibilities.

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WHERE TO OBTAIN MORE INFORMATION

Division of Education for the Exceptional Child
Office of Indian Education Programs
Bureau of Indian Affairs
1951 Constitution Avenue, NW
Washington DC 20245

Bureau of Education for the Handicapped
Donohoe Building
400 6th Street, SW
Washington DC 20202

Indian and Migrant Program Division
Head Start Bureau
Administration for Children, Youth and Families
P.O. Box 1182
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SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF HANDICAPPED MINORITY STUDENTS

What constitutes a minority group?

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) defines a minority group as "any group which because of racial or ethnic origin constitutes a distinctive and recognizable minority in our society. Present examples of minority groups would include Blacks or Afro Americans, American Indians, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Oriental Americans." (*CEC Handbook*, 1978, p. 87)

Although it is recognized that many other groups may be identified as minorities (e.g., females, the handicapped, etc.) this fact sheet will use the term *minority* to refer exclusively to groups whose racial or ethnic heritage is different from that of the majority population.

What is meant by a handicapped minority student?

Being a member of a minority group is considered by some to be a handicap in and of itself. But the concern here is with the student who is racially, culturally, or linguistically different and is also physically, emotionally, or mentally impaired. The Chinese American child who is deaf; the Black child who is visually impaired; the Puerto Rican student who has cerebral palsy; and the Mexican American child who is mentally retarded—these are the handicapped minority students.

What is the difference between race and ethnicity?

An individual who retains the language, customs, and social values of a cultural heritage that is different from the predominant traditions of a country is usually considered to be a member of an ethnic minority. Racial minorities include those individuals whose genetic makeup transmits physical traits sufficient to distinguish them from the dominant population.

An individual may be part of both a racial and an ethnic group. A Navajo child may carry the genes and distinguishing physical features of his or her race. In addition, the child may maintain the language and/or culture of the group and thereby may be considered ethnic. Some minority children may be so assimilated and acculturated into the dominant society that only their physical features identify them as members of a minority group. These children are essentially nonethnic.

How can race affect the educational process?

Most people, including minority group individuals, have prejudices. To be prejudiced is to prejudge, and nearly everyone occasionally prejudges other people or situations.

Stereotyping in movies, television, and books fosters the prejudices which teachers and students develop toward those who are racially different. While some prejudging of others is inevitable, assumptions and biases which are so intense that they interfere with the development of rapport, trust, and objectivity are detrimental to the educational process.

How can ethnicity affect the educational process?

The customs and social values of different ethnic groups may cause children from those groups to behave or respond in a manner that sets them apart from the majority of students.

For example, some children with Asian backgrounds tend to maintain a passive posture in the classroom, speaking only when spoken to as is expected of them at home. This behavior may give the mistaken impression that the child is either disinterested or does not understand. Some American Indian children will not compete in the same manner as majority group children. Teachers may attribute this behavior to a lack of motivation, but American Indian children are often taught by their parents that excellence is related to one's contribution to the group and cooperation for group survival is more desirable than competing for personal recognition.

While it is important for educators to be aware of the possible influence of different cultural values on the behavior of minority group children, it is equally important to recognize the dangers of stereotyping and overgeneralizing these characteristics to all children from a particular group.

What are some of the unique problems faced by minority children who are also handicapped?

The minority children who are handicapped are truly operating at an extreme disadvantage. Not only do these children have to cope with the common problems faced by minority children, but they must carry the additional burden of being

physically or mentally different from their own ethnic or racial group.

Disproportionately high numbers of handicapped minority children also come from poor socioeconomic backgrounds. All of these factors contribute to a negative self image and low self esteem.

Diagnosing learning problems of bilingual children is a difficult task. Many children who are classified as bilingual have little or no English and may have a very poorly developed primary language system as well. Children who are handicapped and linguistically different may experience extreme isolation with little understanding of what is happening around them.

Often children from low socioeconomic backgrounds place great emphasis on physical skills since many of their available role models tend to have occupations related to physical or manual ability. Athletic competition for children from ghetto areas is often a serious activity. Playground football, baseball, or basketball may promote vigorous competition, since excellence in athletics is often viewed as a fast one way ticket out of the ghetto. Sensory and physical handicaps all but preclude athletic competition, and even mental retardation or severe learning disabilities can create problems, since many athletic activities are highly structured.

Some minority group parents view education as a means to raise their socioeconomic standards. Mental retardation and learning disabilities are serious barriers to such goals. Unable to meet either their own goals or those of their parents, many handicapped minority children may suffer further depreciation of their self concept.

Emotional disturbance and social maladjustment.

A disproportionately high number of minority group individuals have been identified as emotionally disturbed or socially maladjusted. Poor self concept, poverty, and inadequate educational and employment opportunities all contribute to the frustration and despair which can so easily result in socially deviant behavior. A high incidence of emotional and social maladjustment should in no way suggest that minority individuals are predisposed toward mental illness or lives of crime.

What can teachers do to provide more meaningful educational experiences for handicapped minority students?

Sensitivity is the key to working with minority children. Sensitivity can be viewed in terms of responding to, appreciating, and allowing for differentness. Sensitivity suggests an open mind, receptive to the cultural contributions each child in the class can offer. Sensitivity can be developed by watching and listening to the children, reading about different customs and practices, and paying attention to the activities of minority groups in the community.

A teacher who has become culturally sensitive is better equipped to help minority children develop positive self concepts. When a teacher values a child, that child's self concept is likely to improve. Further, the attitude of the teacher is often reflected by the entire class. When a teacher values the culture of a child and makes it known to the other children it is likely that they too will value cultural diversity. Pepper's (1976) suggestions to improve the self concept of Indian children are equally applicable to other minority children:

- Teach the true history of the different minority groups and the value of these cultures to all children.
- Value and accept the children as they are.
- Use words that build the children's self esteem and feeling of adequacy.
- Show faith in the children so they can believe in themselves.
- Plan for experiences which are guaranteed to give success.

Motivation is closely associated with self concept. An enhanced self concept will strengthen the motivation of a child. The development of sensitivity opens the door for the creation of trust between teacher and child, and between teacher and parent. With this trust comes a working relationship. The development of these relationships is obviously not as easy to establish as it is to read about. Establishing trust and respect and developing sensitivity may take weeks or months.

There are few, if any, cookbook approaches for teaching the handicapped minority child. Enlightenment about cultural diversity, careful study of the idiosyncrasies of each ethnic group, and a basic knowledge of sound special education techniques will provide a foundation for meeting the individual needs of these children.

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MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION AND THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

What is multicultural education?

> Multicultural education is preparation for the social, political, and economic realities that individuals experience in culturally diverse and complex human encounters. These realities have both national and international dimensions. This preparation provides a process by which an individual develops competencies for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and behaving in differential cultural settings. Thus, multicultural education is viewed as an intervention and an on-going assessment process to help institutions and individuals become more responsive to the human condition, individual cultural integrity, and cultural pluralism in society. (NCATE Standards, 1977, p. 4)

Why must teacher education programs plan for multicultural education?

Most teacher education programs are members of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), which is the major teacher education accrediting organization in the United States. In order to receive accreditation or reaccreditation, NCATE member institutions must meet the new NCATE Standards on Multicultural Education adopted May, 1977, and made effective January 1, 1979.

> Standard 2.1.1: The institution gives evidence of planning for multicultural education in its teacher education curricula including both the general and professional studies components. (NCATE Standards, 1977, p. 4)

In addition, some state education agencies are requiring a multicultural component in all teacher education programs that issue state certifications. Perhaps more important than meeting the mandates of NCATE and of state education agencies, teacher training programs are themselves recognizing the value of multicultural education training for their students.

What should be the focus of multicultural education?

> Multicultural education could include but not be limited to experiences which: (1) Promote analytical and evaluative abilities to confront issues such as participatory democracy, racism and sexism, and the parity of power; (2) Develop skills for values clarification including the study of the manifest and latent transmission of values; (3) Examine the dynamics of diverse cultures and the implications for developing teaching strategies; and (4) Examine linguistic variations and diverse learning styles as a basis for the development of appropriate teaching strategies. (NCATE Standards, 1977, p. 4)

The statement clearly suggests that the parameters of multicultural education extend beyond ethnic studies. While ethnic studies will likely be a focal point for multicultural education, other groups may also be considered as distinct cultural groups in our society. Multicultural education may very well include the study of groups formed on the basis of sex, religion, age, language, handicapping conditions (e.g., the deaf community as a cultural group), socioeconomic level, and social class.

Hasidic Jews, for example, form an ultra conservative group that is more likely to be viewed as religious than as ethnic. The unique religious practices of Hasidic Jews set them apart, even from other Jewish Americans. The Amish, likewise, are a unique cultural group which is generally classified as religious. Avoidance of many mechanical and modern conveniences and strict adherence to religious principles tend to isolate the Amish from the rest of society. The beliefs, customs, and cultural values held by each of these diverse cultural groups need to be reflected in local educational programs. Multicultural education, therefore, should provide information about various cultural groups in our society so that teachers will be better able to understand the individual needs and differences of their students.

How is multicultural education related to cultural pluralism and cultural assimilation?

Advocates of multicultural education support the concept of a pluralistic society and endorse the principle that there is no one model American. Cultural pluralism not only appreciates, but promotes cultural differentness. It recognizes that is the the unique contributions of various cultural groups that strengthen and enrich our society.

The Commission on Multicultural Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education developed a policy statement which was adopted by the association in 1972 entitled "No One Model American." One of the paragraphs in the text states:

> To endorse cultural pluralism is to endorse the principle that there is no one model American. To endorse cultural pluralism is to understand and appreciate the differences that exist among the nation's citizens. It is to see these differences as a positive force in the continuing development of a society which professes a wholesome respect for the intrinsic worth of every individual. Cultural pluralism is more than a temporary accommodation to placate racial and ethnic minorities. It is a concept that aims toward a heightened sense of being and of wholeness of the entire society based on the unique strengths of each of its parts." (AACTE, 1973)

Cultural assimilation has often been associated with the concept of the melting pot in which the diverse population of America is melted down into a single race of people with similar values, life styles, and cultural patterns. The extreme assimilationist would have minority children given up whatever sets them apart as culturally diverse, including language, dialect, or ethnic values so they may become part of the great American mainstream. This posture denies the importance and the contributions of the various cultural groups to the total society, and fails to recognize the intrinsic worth of diverse cultures.

Why is multicultural education of particular interest to those working with exceptional children?

It may generally be observed that a disproportionate percentage of special education students come from culturally diverse populations. Children with mild learning problems from the predominant culture (e.g., White, middle class) are less often seen as candidates for special education than are their culturally diverse counterparts. Not only have large numbers of ethnic children been placed in special education programs but other cultural groups also have disproportionately high representation. Problems associated with mild handicapping conditions seem to be compounded for minority students. For this reason it is especially important for teachers who work with exceptional students to receive a multicultural education. By studying the learning styles, dialects values, and communication patterns of many cultural groups, educators will have a greater insight into the diverse needs and natures of all their students and therefore can better provide for each student's unique educational needs.

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SELF IDENTITY AND THE CULTURALLY DIVERSE CHILD

Why is the self concept of culturally diverse children a concern to educators?

Culturally diverse children often live in two worlds, that of the dominant society and that of their own cultural group. They are sometimes confused as to where they belong or where they want to be. They can see many positive aspects of the dominant society that are attractive to them, while at the same time the values of their own cultural group often offer them a sense of security.

How do labels affect the self concept of culturally diverse children?

Labels that are frequently used to identify culturally diverse individuals are often a subtle form of racism. The term *minority* itself carries with it a connotation of being lower than other groups with respect to power, status, and treatment. Even in a situation where a minority group outnumbers other ethnic groups in population size, it may still be relegated to a minority status due to the socioeconomic and power structure of the community.

Terms such as "culturally deprived," "culturally disadvantaged," and "culturally different" are frequently used to identify culturally diverse individuals. The first two terms operate from a posture of arrogance suggesting that these cultures function at a deficit level as contrasted to the majority group culture. Further, such a posture often fails to recognize the intrinsic value and uniqueness of these cultural groups and their contributions to the total society. The "culturally different" terminology suggests some degree of deviance and carries with it negative implications.

How have the media affected the self concept of culturally diverse children?

The media, including newspapers, television, and motion pictures, have all contributed to the negative image of culturally diverse individuals either by stereotyping, omission, or distortion. Stereotyping in movies and television has created distorted views of minority group individuals. In the past, a minority actor or actress was almost never cast in the role of a professional. Instead he or she portrayed such stereotypic roles as servant or laborer. Only in recent years has there been a minimal effort to correct these omissions and stereotypings. The news media continue to support biased reporting. Whites involved in criminal activities seldom are identified by ethnicity—only name, age, and sex. Reports such as "A Black male, age 29, is being held suspect. . .," however, are typical. Biased reporting of this type may suggest to the community that only minority individuals are responsible for criminal activity.

How have textbooks affected the self concepts of culturally diverse children?

History books are also filled with omissions, distortions, and stereotyping. One example is the credit given to engineer Pierre L'Enfant for his role in surveying and designing a master plan for Washington, D.C. Every student who studies the history of Washington or tours the city will be impressed with this man's contributions to American history. The magnificent plaza named in L'Enfant's honor serves as a visible reminder of his efforts. However, few will read or hear about the contributions of Benjamin Banneker, a Black, who also played a prominent role in the designing of the city. When L'Enfant returned to France with the only set of blueprints, Banneker, who served on the surveying team with L'Enfant, was able to reproduce the plans accurately from memory and facilitated the building of the city. In contrast to the L'Enfant Plaza, only a rather obscure, out of the way circle bears Benjamin Banneker's name.

Native American children have to contend with history books reporting massacres of Whites by Indians. Only the most recent books report that these acts occurred infrequently and that massacres of Native Americans by Whites also took place.

Chinese American children have heard and read of the opium dens and other "inscrutable" behaviors of the early Chinese in America. Only recently has the truth as to why the early Chinese immigrants were driven to such behaviors been revealed. Unfortunately, many textbooks continue to be published with omissions, distortions, and stereotyping.

What are the effects of labeling and negative treatment of culturally diverse groups by the media and textbooks?

Perhaps the most damaging effect of these stereotypings, omissions, and distortions is the development of negative self perceptions by many culturally diverse children. Often these children have few positive role models to identify with either in the home or on the television or movie screen. Consequently, they learn to perceive themselves and their cultural group as inferior to the dominant culture. Socially, minority youngsters may perceive themselves as deviant. Economically and politically, they may view themselves as powerless. Vocationally, they may be conditioned to limit themselves to such roles as domestic worker, laundryman, migrant farm worker, or criminal.

What is the effect on culturally diverse children when they attempt to be assimilated?

Culturally diverse individuals who have educated themselves for a profession or occupation have accepted assimilation as the means to society's reward systems.

These individuals view assimilation as a vehicle to acceptance and success within the dominant society. Yet, in spite of their efforts to become educated and to embrace the mainstream culture, jobs are still not available at the higher echelon levels, and salaries for minority professionals tend to be disproportionately low. Even with education and sophistication culturally diverse individuals still experience social and vocational rejection.

It is not uncommon for assimilated minority persons to develop problems with self identify. They have chosen to separate themselves from their ethnic community, but they have not been accepted fully in the dominant society. They exist between two worlds. Young people who are in the process of breaking away from the culture of their parents suffer guilt for rejecting family values, alienation from their family unit and ethnic community, and pain of rejection from the mainstream society.

How can the school support the healthy development of personal identities for culturally diverse exceptional children?

Ethnic studies and other forms of multicultural education have the potential to foster positive attitudes in both culturally diverse and dominant cultural groups. Studying diverse cultural groups can enhance majority group children's ability to understand and appreciate differentness. Culturally diverse children can develop a sense of ethnic pride and identity. Carefully planned curriculums can rectify many of the negative self concepts derived from years of media exposure to stereotyping, omissions, and distortions.

While at the present time there is a conspicuous absence of curriculums developed specifically for culturally diverse exceptional children, there does exist a wide range of ethnic studies curriculums for different grade levels. For a number of years Title IX has been funding projects related to curriculum development, training, and dissemination. Presently over 200 of these curriculums have been submitted to the Ethnic Studies Clearinghouse in Boulder, Colorado. They are currently being catalogued and evaluated. Curriculums have been developed for all of the most frequently identified culturally diverse groups. In addition, a wide range of curriculums for other ethnic groups have also been developed. For example, the 56 projects funded for 1978-1979 prepared curriculums for Estonians, Haitians, Hawaiians, Cajun French, and Bulgarians.

Many of these curriculums are appropriate for use with exceptional children, but others will require some modifications. With respect to ethnic studies curriculums, in most instances the wheel does not need to be reinvented but simply modified to meet the needs of handicapped or gifted students.

RESOURCES

Ethnic Studies Clearinghouse
Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
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AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FOR THE HANDICAPPED

What kinds of businesses and organizations are required to follow an affirmative action policy?

Any business or organization that receives federal funds in any form, including grants and contracts, is subject to compliance with Section 503 and/or Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

Section 503 requires that federal contractors furnishing $2,500 or more in supplies or services take affirmative action to employ and advance in employment qualified handicapped individuals. This includes the requirement that contractors undertake appropriate outreach and recruitment activities.

Similarly, Section 504 states that "no qualified handicapped person shall, on the basis of a handicap, be subjected to discrimination in employment under any program or activity . . ." operated by a recipient of federal assistance (*Federal Register*, p. 22678).

The regulations for both sections are similar in their content. An effective affirmative action plan would insure compliance with these sections. Both sets of regulations discuss procedures such as recruiting, hiring, advancement, employment criteria, reasonable accommodation, and internal dissemination of such policies.

What can be done to increase the number of jobs available to handicapped applicants?

When position descriptions are developed, all physical and mental job qualifications should be reviewed to insure that they do not inadvertently eliminate qualified handicapped applicants. A comprehensive job analysis should be conducted to determine the discrete functions of each job and potential discriminating factors affecting handicapped applicants should be eliminated.

An essential element of a successful affirmative action program is a willingness on the part of employers to hire people on the basis of their ability to perform specific tasks. If there is a question as to whether an applicant will be able to perform job related functions, it should be discussed. No one should be disqualified on the basis of what may be erroneous assumptions on the part of the employer.

What recruiting procedures can be used to increase the number of job applications from handicapped individuals?

Position announcements should be sent to national consumer health organizations, local consumer advocacy groups, higher education disabled student programs, and periodicals widely read by the handicapped.

Contact should also be made with area representatives of the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation and the specialized services of the State Employment Commission.

Although it is unlawful to make a preemployment inquiry to determine whether an applicant is handicapped, employers should invite applicants to identify themselves as being handicapped should they wish to do so.

Locating qualified handicapped individuals will require employers to allow extra time for the screening process. When possible, available positions should be announced at least two months prior to hiring. This additional time is needed to contact appropriate schools and organizations and in turn to allow them time to disseminate information to interested handicapped individuals. Employment and rehabilitation agencies may also need extra time to search their caseloads for handicapped persons who have the appropriate qualifications.

What can be done if a handicapped applicant needs additional training to do the job?

An arrangement can often be made with the area vocational rehabilitation agency to allow on-the-job training (OJT) to take place at the employment site. Since on-the-job training is viewed as a substitute for going to school, the prospective employer may submit a training plan outlining the skills that the new employee needs to learn. On-the-job training may be funded to develop any special skills which would increase the

employee's employment potential. The average on-the-job training lasts three months, with a possible maximum length of six months. The employee's progress is reported each month to the Department of Vocational Rehabilitation.

What accommodations need to be made for a handicapped employee?

When a qualified handicapped individual is located, he or she should be hired, providing reasonable accommodation can be made for his or her physical or mental limitations. Reasonable accommodation may mean improving accessibility features of a building; for example, a blind person may need braille numbers next to the floor buttons in the elevators. Reasonable accommodation could also mean job restructuring, part time or modified work schedules, provision of support personnel such as readers or interpreters, or acquisition or modification of equipment or devices (e.g., a telephone amplifier for a hearing-impaired employee). Similar provisions for reasonable accommodation also apply to the advancement of handicapped employees.

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Handbook of Employment Rights of the Handicapped, Sections 503 and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, by Anne Marie C. Hermann and Lucinda Walker, 1978. Available from: Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute on Attitudinal, Legal, and Leisure Barriers, George Washington University, 1828 L Street, N.W., Suite 704, Washington DC 20036.

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REACHING HANDICAPPED CHILDREN IN THEIR EARLY YEARS

The information in this fact sheet is taken directly from *Early Childhood Education for Exceptional Children: A Handbook of Ideas and Exemplary Practices*, edited by Julie B. Jordan, Alice H. Hayden, Merle B. Karnes, and Mary M. Wood.

Why is early intervention important?

There is evidence that programs providing early educational and therapeutic programing to meet the needs of young handicapped children and their families are reducing the number of children who will need intensive or long term help. The importance of reaching handicapped children early and working to help them reach their full potential cannot be overemphasized. With early help, the sooner the better, these children can often function at higher levels than had been dreamed possible in prior years. (p. 3)

What conditions can be identified very early?

For children with certain kinds of handicapping conditions, identification can occur at birth. For instance, children with physical anomalies such as microcephaly or deformities such as cleft palate, children with severe cerebral damage, most Down's syndrome children, and children with extremely low Apgar ratings or very low birth weight are usually identified within the first five minutes following birth. Other indices of handicapping conditions may be noticed during the first few days following birth. Behaviors and characteristics that normal infants do not exhibit such as coma, severe lethargy, constant crying, convulsions, recurrent apnea, bulging fontanelle, rapidly increasing head size, unequal size of eye pupils, absent corneal reflexes, and paralysis of any extremity, facial muscle, or eye muscle serve as indicators that the child is at high risk and needs further extensive assessment. (pp. 68-69)

What conditions may complicate early diagnosis?

Identification, screening, and assessment may be complicated by many factors. The age of the child and severity of the handicapping condition(s) may make accurate assessment difficult; resources and personnel to conduct early screening and assessment may vary widely from one community to another; environmental conditions affecting health and health habits may vary considerably; differences in nutritional intake and eating habits or lack of sufficient nourishment may cause problems; and certain cultural, religious, and language differences pose difficulties in assessment unless those who are screening and assessing are thoroughly acquainted with the populations with whom they are working. Basically, children from backgrounds other than the White middle class should not be classified or labeled with instruments that were standardized on White middle class children. (p. 68)

Many handicapping conditions may go unnoticed for some time. Children suffering from these conditions evidence subtle developmental lags that may not be identified until later in life. Often the parent is the first person to suspect a problem. The fact that parents are often the first to suspect a problem is due to the lack of formal procedures to screen children between the newborn nursery and school and to pediatricians' lack of time or the techniques to notice developmental problems.

Too often the doctor's suggestion that a handicap is probably not serious and should be ignored leads to a delay in providing appropriate services. Even if techniques for screening were routinely used, many young children, especially those from lower socioeconomic families, would not have access to them because they do not receive continuous health care and their problems often go undetected until they enter school. The time span during which handicapping conditions remain undetected needs to be shortened, and formal screening is one method for reducing this time. (p. 69)

How can a screening program help reach more children at risk?

Screening can be defined as the testing of a large population in order to identify those individuals who are most likely to manifest a handicap. It is a formal procedure for identifying people with *suspected* handicapping conditions. Screening is not—or should not be—used to label an individual; nor is it used to prepare *specific* objectives for intervention. A more intensive and complete assessment must follow for those individuals identified through the screening process. However, screening is an essential first step, an "early warning" signal that more intensive, precision assessment of a child's strengths and deficits is required in order that remedial—or, ideally, preventive—activities can be initiated.

There are instances of established screening techniques that are in common practice today. One example is the screening of PKU (phenylketonuria), which is mandated by law in many states. This relatively simple procedure of taking a urine sample for analysis during the first few days following birth has proven to be an effective device for identifying children with PKU. (pp. 69-70)

Why is it important to involve parents in early intervention?

The involvement of the child's family as an *active participant* is critical to the success of any intervention program. Without such family involvement, any effect of intervention . . . appears to erode fairly rapidly once the program ends. In contrast, the involvement of the *parents as partners* in the enterprise provides an ongoing system which can reinforce the effects of the program while it is in operation, and help to sustain them after the program ends. (p. 210).

- Parents of a handicapped child will have more responsibility for their child over a significantly longer period of time than parents of a normal child. They need parenting and teaching skills that parents of a normal child need not necessarily possess.
- Parents usually know their child better than anyone else. Parents can thus serve as a vital resource to program staff in the development of functional program objectives for the child that will be useful in his or her own unique environment.
- Transferring learning from the classroom to the home has been an acknowledged problem. This occurs because there is insufficient and/or ineffective communication between parents and teaching staff. Thus, it is vitally important that there is planned consistency between the educational program and the educational experiences provided by the parents. Without effective parent involvement, the best possible program for the child will have little effect.
- Parent training during the preschool years is beneficial not only for the target child but also for his or her siblings.
- The training of parents, who already are natural reinforcing agents, will provide them with the skills necessary to teach new behaviors effectively and to modify inappropriate behaviors that interfere with learning.
- Parent involvement can greatly accelerate the child's rate of learning. The center, working with the child without benefit of parental involvement, cannot begin to accomplish alone what staff and parents can accomplish together. (p. 211)

Where can parents go for help?

Closer Look is a national service for parents of children with mental, physical, and emotional handicaps. This agency offers information about places and people to turn to—organizations, agencies, and offices that can help in locating programs and coping with problems. Contact: Closer Look, The National Information Center for the Handicapped, P.O. Box 1492, Washington DC 20013.

Centers where comprehensive treatment, evaluation, and followup services for children suspected of mental retardation are listed in *Clinical Programs for Mentally Retarded Children,* 10th edition. Single copies are available free from: Bureau of Community Health Services, Program Services Branch, ITSA PHS, 5600 Fishers Lane, Rockville MD 20857.

Crippled Children's Services (CCS) is a joint federal/state program to provide medical and related services to handicapped children from birth to age 21. All states must provide medical diagnosis and evaluation free for all children. No state residency period is required before such services are provided. The range and cost of additional treatment or hospital care services vary from state to state. All programs accept third party payments such as Medicaid, Blue Cross and Blue Shield, and other medical insurance. For further information on what is available to your handicapped child, contact your local county or state health department.

The Early Periodic Screening, Diagnosis and Treatment Program (EPSDT) screens children from poor families to identify whether health care or related services may be necessary. Children receiving state Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) benefits and children whose parents or guardians are receiving Medicaid and/or local or state public assistance benefits are eligible for EPSDT. EPSDT programs vary from state to state and are administered by either state public assistance (welfare) or health departments. For more information on EPSDT contact your physician, local or state health department, or public assistance office.

To find out about preschool programs for handicapped children contact your local school district or the State Director of Special Education.

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THE ARGUMENT FOR EARLY INTERVENTION

What is meant by early intervention and why is it so important?

Early intervention usually means discovering problems and doing something about them before a child's development and learning are seriously, perhaps permanently, affected. Early help can prevent other deleterious conditions from developing and can lessen concomitant difficulties such as family upheaval or disordered emotional reactions of the child.

Learning specialists believe that skill development is related to both a state of readiness and an opportunity for learning a given skill. Timing of the intervention becomes particularly important when a child runs the risk of missing an opportunity to learn during a state of maximum readiness. If the "teachable moments" or readiness stages are not taken advantage of, a child may have difficulty learning a particular skill at a later time. Langley (1976) stated that the more time that elapses between the period of optimum readiness and the time when the opportunity for learning is provided, the greater the difficulties in learning become. Langley traced the effects of lost teachable moments in the six Piagetian stages of sensorimotor development.

Some types of impairments require particularly prompt attention. Downs (1972) reported that 60% of a child's basic language abilities are established by age 2; therefore deafness must be identified in early infancy in order to use the child's residual hearing during the critical periods for language development.

In an early study, Heber, Dever, and Conry (1968) found that groups of disadvantaged children, particularly children whose mothers had IQ's of 75 or below, showed a steady decline from an estimated normal IQ, measured in infancy, to the level of their mothers by the time they were 3 years old. It is possible that early intervention could halt such a decline.

How reliable are early predictions of intellectual functioning?

The utility of infant intelligence assessment is a matter of debate. Lewis and McGurk (1972) reported findings that "cast serious doubt on the notion that the concept of general intelligence is applicable to the period of infancy. [They] found no evidence to support the view that intelligence is a capacity which unfolds at a steady rate throughout the process of development and which increases only quantitatively from one age to the next." (p. 1176)

The major difficulty with infant tests of intellectual functioning is an apparent bias toward sensorimotor functioning. Meier (1975) pointed out that scores of infant intelligence tests have been more highly related to subsequent sensorimotor performance than to intelligence.

What does research say about the effectiveness of early intervention?

Initial studies (Bronfenbrenner, 1974) raised serious questions about the effects, quality, and costs involved in preschool intervention. Within the past several years, however, research has indicated more positive results. Hayden (1977) found that 34% of preschool handicapped children who had been enrolled in model preschool programs from 1969 to 1976 subsequently attended regular classes and were doing well.

Lazar, Hubbell, Murrary, Rosche, and Royce (1977) analyzed data from 12 separate programs serving disadvantaged children in center based, home based, and mixed programs, and found that the experimental group children in almost every program were performing better in school than were control group children from identical backgrounds. That is, fewer experimental group children were in special education and fewer were detained a grade.

In addition, results of a survey of more than 40 longitudinal intervention research programs for high risk children (Stedman, 1977) indicated that educational programs for preschool handicapped children can significantly improve the lives of children.

Most early intervention research has been aimed at the economically and socially disadvantaged population. Barrera and his colleagues (1976) cited the paucity of data with

handicapped infants and related their own findings, in which biologically handicapped children made significantly more progress in areas clinically selected for treatment than in areas treated on a random or control basis (Barrera, Routh, Parr, Johnson, Arendshorst, Goolsby, & Shroeder, 1976).

What are some abuses of preschool screening?

When screening is used for prediction rather than for educational planning, abuses can result. Zeitlin (1976) suggested that preschool screening can be a negative force when:

- No followup program is developed.
- Initial screening is used as a diagnosis on which to base remediation or placement.
- Results are used to exclude children from school by suggesting that they are not ready.
- Stigmatizing labels are assigned.
- Screening is used to reinforce and justify existing curriculum centered programs.
- Results focus on weaknesses alone rather than on strengths.
- The effects of cultural differences or bilingualism are not considered.

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THE IEP REVIEW

Parents, regular class teachers, and special educators who work with handicapped children are becoming involved not only in the process of developing individualized education programs (IEP's) but in the review process as well. This fact sheet attempts to answer some questions about the IEP review process.

Why is an IEP review necessary?

Each handicapped child has his or her own IEP stating what special education and related services will be provided to meet that child's unique educational needs. But as children learn, their educational needs change. Therefore, it is necessary to periodically review every IEP in order to determine whether the services being provided are still appropriate, and if not, to revise the program so it can continue to serve as a useful educational blueprint. The IEP review should be seen as a time to assess a child's progress, coordinate resources with needs, and exchange information with parents and administrators.

How often should the IEP be reviewed?

The number of IEP reviews needed will vary from child to child. Need for review may be occasioned by a difference between a child's actual rate of learning and the amount of time originally anticipated for attaining a particular goal; or by changes that affect the child's present levels of educational performance. The law requires that meetings be held to review and if necessary revise each child's IEP at least once a year and more often if there is reason. Whenever teachers or parents feel a child's program is not working, they may request a review of the child's IEP.

What happens at an IEP review meeting?

Most IEP review meetings, whether they occur annually or more frequently, follow a certain pattern:

1. A comparison is made between the level of attainment demonstrated by the student and the performance criteria specified for each objective in the IEP.
2. An appraisal is made of whether the special education and related services specified for the student in the IEP were actually delivered, including a comparison of the projected dates for initiation of services and duration of such services with the actual events in time.
3. A determination is made concerning the need for a revision of the IEP, including any changes needed in the special education and related services or the way they need to be provided.
4. If it is time to reconsider the student's eligibility for special education, the need for reevaluation should be specified in the revised IEP. By law, reevaluations must be conducted at least once every 3 years. Since administering and interpreting assessment measures is defined by Public Law 94-142 (the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975) as a related service, reevaluations should be written into the IEP as part of the statement of related services to be provided.

What is the teacher's responsibility when a child fails to learn an objective prescribed in the IEP?

The IEP is not a legally binding contract that guarantees outcomes. The law does not demand that somebody be held accountable if a child does not achieve the growth projected in the IEP. Of course, the special education and related services must be delivered as specified and educators must make good faith efforts to assist the child in achieving the goals and objectives listed in the IEP. Any time nonmastery of a goal or objective is noted, it is in the teacher's and child's best interests to search for possible causes. Some things that can contribute to insufficient progress on learning objectives include:

- Inappropriate strategies, methods, or techniques of instruction.

- Lack of adequate resources to deliver instruction.
- Unrealistic time frames.
- Unrealistic or inappropriate objectives.

If the cause of failure is found to be the instructional techniques or resources used, corrective changes should be made and the objective should be taught again. If a revision of the IEP is thought to be necessary, the parents, teacher, agency representative, and child, where appropriate, should meet to make the necessary changes.

What if the student masters the IEP goals sooner than expected?

Evidence that a student needs special education is documented in the IEP, in statements describing the child's present level of educational performance, annual goals, and short term objectives. Once a student achieves the goals set forth in the IEP, the basis for providing special education is removed. Each time goals and objectives are mastered, the child's continued need for special education and related services must be reexamined. Whenever such progress is observed parents or teachers may request that an IEP review meeting be scheduled in order to determine what to do next. The child may or may not continue to require special services. Perhaps new needs have developed; perhaps services need to be altered; or perhaps the rate of learning was originally underestimated and the child can move on to more difficult tasks within the same curriculum sequence. Parents, teachers, a representative of the school system, and, if appropriate, the child must meet to answer these questions and revise the IEP whenever necessary.

Should the IEP contain all the goals and objectives for the student's education?

No. Goals and objectives must be specified only for those areas requiring special education and related services. The IEP is intended to be the vehicle through which a free appropriate public education is provided to handicapped children. Public Law 94-142 defines "free appropriate public education" as "special education and related services. . . provided in conformity with an individualized education program" (Regulations §121a.4)

Short term objectives in the IEP may be viewed as major learning milestones toward achieving the annual goals. Their purpose in the IEP is to support service delivery decisions, not to set forth the daily activity requirements that are the teacher's responsibility

What is the relationship between the IEP and instructional plans?

The IEP is a *management* tool, not an instructional plan. It is an educational program individually designed to insure that the special education and related services provided to handicapped students are for their special learning needs.

An instructional plan is a *teaching* tool that describes what a child will learn on a day by day basis. Instructional plans are not required by Public Law 94-142. However, the contents of instructional plans, such as daily lesson plans, should be developed out of the goals and objectives specified in each child's IEP. Good educational practice dictates that instructional planning includes monitoring and assessment of student progress. Conscientious instructional planning procedures assist in the early detection of problems that might indicate the need to revise a child's IEP.

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Note: The Regulations for Public Law 94-142 were published in the *Federal Register*, Tuesday, August 23, 1977.

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PARENTS' RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

What are my responsibilities as a parent in the process of obtaining a public education for my handicapped child?

Parents often feel that the responsibility for the education of their child rests entirely with the public school system. In fact, many parents consider the school personnel to be experts and therefore to know what is best for their child. While this may be the case for certain aspects of the child's program, as a parent you have the responsibility to be an advocate for your child. Do not be intimidated by thinking that school personnel are experts. You, too, are an expert when it comes to the needs of your child.

Federal and state laws make it mandatory for you as a parent to be included as part of the team that makes educational decisions for your handicapped child. It is your responsibility to work on that team to develop the most appropriate educational program for your child. It is helpful to remember that everyone on the team is working together for the same purpose—to provide for your child's educational needs. In accepting this responsibility, some of the following suggestions may be helpful:

- Maintain a cooperative attitude. Working together in a team effort will only serve to benefit your child.
- Learn as much as you can about your rights and the rights of your child.
- Ask questions. Since educational and medical terms can be confusing, it is perfectly acceptable to question what is being said about your child.
- Express your concerns about your child's education. School personnel will welcome your observations and suggestions.
- Join a parent organization. It is often helpful to know that other parents are going through similar experiences. The opportunity to share knowledge and experiences can be invaluable. Many times parents find that as a group they have the power to bring about needed changes. A parent group can be an effective force on behalf of your child.

What are my rights in obtaining a public education for my handicapped child?

To be an effective advocate for your child, it is most important to know and understand your rights. Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, calls for parent involvement in the process of making educational decisions for handicapped children. Some of your rights during this process include:

- The right to request that your child be evaluated if you feel that he or she is in need of special education.
- The right to have an independent evaluation done if you disagree with the outcome of the school evaluation.
- The right to request an impartial due process hearing if your disagreement over the evaluation cannot be resolved informally.
- The right to participate in the development of your child's individualized education program (IEP). Remember, you know important information about your child that no one else does. Ask questions and give your input at the IEP meeting. You can make a difference.
- The right to request an impartial due process hearing if you disagree with what is offered as your child's IEP.
- The right to appeal the decision of the hearing officer if you disagree with that decision.

In addition, you should know that:

- A child cannot receive special education and related services nor be placed in a special education class without an IEP.
- The placement of a handicapped child cannot be changed without a new IEP.
- If a hearing is requested to determine a child's placement, the child must remain in his or her current placement until the decision has been made.

- Transportation should be included in your child's IEP as a related service.
- The IEP is not intended to cover all of the needs of a handicapped child—only the educational needs.

Many other rights are included under Public Law 94-142. Learn your rights in order to insure that your child receives an appropriate public education.

As the parent of a handicapped child what should I do to prepare for working with the public school system?

As you begin the process of obtaining a public education for your handicapped child, you will find it necessary to work with many different school personnel. The following suggestions may make it easier and faster to obtain the desired educational services:

- Make all requests in writing.
- Keep copies of all correspondence you send and receive.
- Keep a diary of names and dates of telephone conversations, letters, and appointments.
- Request copies of all reports on your child for your files.
- Ask as many questions as it takes to understand what is being said about your child and keep notes for future reference.
- Explain your concerns about your child. Remember that you know your child better than anyone else. Your comments will be helpful.
- Keep an open mind. When there is a spirit of cooperation between you and the school, you will find that the results come much faster. Try to understand all viewpoints before making a decision.

Where can I turn for help and further information?

To insure that you are well informed of your rights, you should obtain a copy of Public Law 94-142 from your congressional representative. You may also find it helpful to obtain a copy of your state's current special education laws and regulations from the special education division of the state department of education. Your school principal or special education administrator will be able to inform you of local school policies as well as your rights under the law. Joining a local parent organization can provide you with needed support. In addition, the parent group may know of other local resources. Information about local parent organizations can be obtained from Closer Look, The National Information Center for the Handicapped, P.O. Box 1492, Washington, DC 20013.

For answers to specific questions about the educational rights of your handicapped child, contact The Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091.

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PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

What rights do parents and students have concerning access and control over educational records?

Under the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974 (Title V, Sec. 513, 514, Public Law 93-380) all parents or students under 18 years of age, even those not having custody of their children, and students 18 years of age or older, have the right to see, obtain copies, correct, and limit release of student records. Your local school district is required to establish written procedures to carry out these rights.

What kinds of student records are parents allowed to see?

An educational record may be handwritten, printed, taped, filmed, or produced in some other medium. A record is considered an educational record if it is directly related to a student and if it is maintained by an education agency or institution. Any record that remains in the possession of a school district employee and that has been shared with or is accessible to another individual is considered an educational record.

The type of record does not matter—discipline cards, psychological reports, medical examination records, attendance data, and test score results are all included. Your school is required to provide you with a list of all the types of records it keeps on students and the titles and addresses of the school officials responsible for the records.

Can a school refuse to show parents a teacher's personal notes on a student?

Yes, but only if these notes are made for the teacher's own use and are not shown to anyone other than a substitute. If they are shared with other people, then they must also be available to the parent.

Can a parent see records sent to the school from agencies outside of the school system?

Yes. Records created by nonschool agencies which are sent to school officials are considered to be school records.

Can students see the same records as parents?

No. While students are permitted to see their own records if they are over 18, no matter how long ago they graduated, there are some public school records that can be withheld, including:

1. Psychiatric or "treatment" records (but a doctor of your own choice can look at them).
2. Confidential letters of recommendation sent to colleges prior to January 1, 1975.
3. Financial records of parents.

Can the school destroy records after a parent or eligible student has asked to see them?

No. Schools cannot destroy a record when a request to see it is pending.

May parents and eligible students read the records themselves?

Yes. You have the right to personally examine the records yourself. If a school official only agrees to read to you from the records, that is not sufficient.

What if the parents or student do not understand something in the record?

You have the right to receive an explanation of any item you do not understand. There will probably be a counselor or other school representative in the room with you when you read the records. If this person cannot answer your questions, ask him or her to find someone who can.

Can records be reviewed more than once a year?

Yes. You have the right to see your child's records as often as you want. As a general rule, it is a good idea to review your child's records at the beginning of each school year and before your child transfers from one school to another.

Is it possible to obtain copies of school records?

Yes. Parents and students 18 years of age or older have the right to obtain copies of school records although you can be charged for the cost of copying.

Can parents do anything if they think education records should be corrected?

Yes. If you believe that information is inaccurate or misleading, or that it is not related to the provision of appropriate educational services, or that it invades your child's or family's privacy, you have the right to request that this information be corrected. The school can do this by removing a record, changing it, or adding information to the file.

How can records be corrected?

First, ask for a meeting with the school principal. Tell the principal which records you want to correct and explain your reasons. Once a request has been made the district is required to respond within a reasonable amount of time. If the district refuses, the parent must be notified of the right to a hearing and the hearing must be held within a reasonable amount of time. An attorney or other representative may attend this hearing in order to help you in presenting your position. What is said at the hearing must be recorded by a tape recorder or a court reporter. The person conducting the hearing must have no direct interest in its outcome and the decision must be based solely on the information presented at the hearing. The final decision is up to the school district and must be presented to the parent in writing.

What can be done if the school district finally decides that the record should not be changed?

You have the right to place a statement in your child's file explaining your view of the records.

What should a parent do if the school district agrees to make the requested change?

Ask the school official to make the change in your child's records in your presence, and then go back to see your child's records several weeks later.

Can schools release a student's records to others?

Parental permission must be obtained in writing before disclosing any personally identifiable record on a child to individuals other than professional personnel employed in the district and others who meet certain specific requirements. District policy must specify who can review a child's records.

What must the school tell parents when they ask for consent to release records?

They must tell you what records have been requested, why the request has been made, and who will receive the records. The school is also required to keep, with the records, a list of everyone who requests and receives information about your child. You have a right to see this list. The list need not include school employees who have seen the records.

How long must records of handicapped students be kept?

According to the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142) it is the responsibility of local school districts to keep school records until a handicapped child reaches age 21 or earns a high school diploma. However, information concerning handicapping conditions and special education services must be destroyed 5 years after the special services are no longer needed. Before any records are destroyed, local districts must make an effort to contact parents or students over 18 years of age or inform them of their right to obtain a copy of the information.

What can parents or eligible students do if a school refuses to let them see, correct, or obtain records, or if the school releases information without consent?

Send a written complaint to Office of Fair Information Practices, US Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 200 Independence Ave., SW, Room 514-E, Washington DC 20201 (202/245-7488). This agency is responsible for enforcing the federal school records law.

RESOURCES

Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 200 Independence Avenue SW, Room 526F, Humphrey Bldg., Washington DC 20201

Closer Look, Post Office Box 1492, Washington DC 20013

Education Law Center, 2100 Lewis Tower Bldg., 225 South 15th Street, Philadelphia PA 19102

National Center for Law and the Handicapped, The American National Bank Bldg., 211 West Washington Street, Suite 1900, South Bend IN 46601

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ADJUDICATED HANDICAPPED YOUTH

Is there a connection between learning problems and adjudication?

Reports about the educational characteristics and the incidence of handicapping conditions among adjudicated youth have appeared at an increasing rate over the past two decades. Most of the studies have focused on the incidence of mental retardation and learning disabilities in this population.

Most investigations found an unusually high prevalence (12% to 15%) of mental retardation among incarcerated youth as compared to an occurrence of 2% to 3% in the general population. Above average figures have also been reported for adjudicated youth with learning disabilities. Depending on the criteria used, between 30% and 50% of that population have been diagnosed as learning disabled. Regardless of the actual figures, there is sufficient evidence to warrant the suspicion that the incidence of both mental retardation and learning disabilities occurs at a higher rate in the adjudicated population than in the population at large.

Why are so many handicapped youth in trouble with the law?

The greater the problems people face in coping with society or with their own feelings of inadequacy, the greater the chances are that they may resort to crime. It is estimated that little more than half of the handicapped youth in secondary schools currently receive the services they need. Those students who present troublesome behavior are frequently suspended or expelled from school. All too often, what is in the best interest of the youth conflicts with what is in the best interest of the school or community.

What alternatives can the schools exercise toward the prevention of delinquency and alienation?

Efforts in career education, vocational education, guided group interaction, job coaching, and the strengthening of field service liaison between school and community agencies can be useful in preventing young people from experiencing failure and alienation. Alternative high schools with a range of service deliveries are frequently more effective than the traditional expulsion or suspension method. The attitude and modeling behavior of teachers are powerful influences on students' aggressive behavior.

What are the requirements for educating adjudicated handicapped youth?

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142) mandates a free, appropriate public education for all handicapped children regardless of what agency is serving them. Youth correction agencies are faced, therefore, with the task of identifying handicapped youth within their jurisdiction and developing policies for supplying them with all rights, procedures, and services mandated under the law.

What requirements need to be considered in developing policies for handicapped youngsters in correctional facilities?

Youth correctional facilities in many states are facing new and in some ways unique problems in developing educational policies for the delivery of services as required under P. L. 94-142. The following requirements and issues need to be considered:

- State education agencies are responsible for assuring that all handicapped students receive appropriate education, thus requiring new levels of interagency cooperation and agreement between education and correctional agencies.
- Development and implementation of individualized education programs (IEP's) requires that all educational *and* related services needed by youth be delivered. Included will be many services not previously provided in correctional settings.

- Services for handicapped students are to be provided in the least restrictive environment (LRE), but by their very nature correctional facilities are restrictive and typically have offered few alternatives.
- Procedural safeguards, guaranteed under P. L. 94-142, provide the adjudicated handicapped youth with a process for challenging the correctional facility if it fails to provide an appropriate education. At the very least, issues related to surrogate parents and impartial hearings are new policy areas for correctional institutions.
- The law requires that any placement or change in educational placement should be based on the student's IEP. Educational decisions made at the correctional facility and at the school the student attends upon release should be based on what is recommended in the IEP. This will require considerable cooperation between the public schools and the correctional facility.
- P. L. 94-142 specifies that handicapped students receive services from *qualified personnel*. This requirement has implications for personnel development programs in the field of youth corrections work.

What other elements should be included in effective community response to youth needs and problems?

Increased roles for youth in decision making that affects them and expanded choices in programs that deal with them open opportunities for meaningful participation. We squander a considerable resource and lose much good will when we do not seek ways for greater youth involvement and freedom of choice.

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RESPONSIBILITIES OF REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHERS FOR HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

Does having handicapped children in their classrooms mean that regular teachers will be required to provide special education?

No. According to Sec. 121a.12 of the regulations for Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, a person who is qualified to provide special education or related services must meet "state educational agency approved or recognized certification, licensing, registration or other comparable requirements which apply to the area in which he or she is providing special education or related services." This means that only special educators are qualified to provide special education.

What are the responsibilities of regular educators with respect to handicapped children?

Some of the things regular educators may be responsible for or be involved in include the following:

- Identifying potentially handicapped children.
- Referring potentially handicapped children.
- Taking part in due process procedures.
- Collecting data about handicapped children.
- Assisting handicapped children with special equipment.
- Participating at IEP meetings.
- Participating in team work with other professionals.
- Communicating with parents.
- Helping handicapped and nonhandicapped children work and play together.

Whenever a handicapped child is placed in a regular classroom, the responsibility of the regular educator for that child is the same as for any other child in the classroom. Because all children differ with respect to amount of learning, rate of learning, and learning style, minor modifications in methodology, curriculum, or environment are often necessary for both nonhandicapped and handicapped children. Special education, which involves significant modifications in methodology, curriculum, or environment, may also be delivered to some handicapped children in regular classrooms. Whenever this arrangement is specified in the child's IEP, the development of such specially designed instruction is the responsibility of special educators. Regular educators are responsible for assisting the child in carrying out the program. Overall classroom management also continues to be the responsibility of the regular educator.

Is there a major change in the type of student in regular classes?

The majority of handicapped children who are or will be in regular classes are those with mild handicaps, for example: speech impaired, learning disabled, and mildly retarded children who have historically been educated at least for part of the day in regular classes.

While Public Law 94-142 requires that removal from regular classes occur only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in the regular classroom—even with the use of supplementary aids and services—cannot be achieved satisfactorily, this in itself should not result in a major change in the type of student served in a regular classroom. In the past, most physically handicapped children were educated in separate schools mainly because regular school facilities were not accessible. Today more children in wheelchairs are attending regular classes because of improved school accessibility. A significant change may also be seen in the number of handicapped children who are participating with their nonhandicapped peers in a variety of school-wide activities.

What new knowledge and skills do regular educators need in order to work with handicapped children?

Most regular educators already possess some of the skills needed to work with handicapped children in the regular classroom. For instance, regular educators have always exercised extra patience and made minor curricular adaptations

for the slow learner. In addition to these skills, the general educator may need some of the following:

- Knowledge and use of supplementary aids and services such as brailled worksheets for blind students or provision of tape recorders or typewriters for children who cannot write.
- Ability to make minor modifications in schedules.
- Use of cooperative teaching techniques in conjunction with special educators.
- Knowledge of federal, state, and local policies and procedural requirements.
- Operation of physical aids used by the children such as wheelchairs, walkers, and hearing aids.

What kind of inservice training will regular educators need?

Pursuant to Public Law 94-142 regulations, states must conduct an annual needs assessment and initiate personnel development programs based on the assessed needs. While inservice training needs may vary from state to state, the training needs of regular educators with respect to handicapped children generally fall into three categories:

- *Management.* Teachers need to be taught such things as how to manage disability in classrooms, the use of supplementary aids, classroom organization to accommodate a wheelchair, and how to manage a seizure.
- *Human relationship skills.* Teachers ought to receive training which will assist them to understand and deal with their own fears and biases concerning people who are handicapped, how to help other children in their classes to do the same, and how to be an effective member of a team.
- *Interrelationship with special education.* Teachers need training about state and federal special education policies; their role in procedures for referral, evaluation, IEP development, and due process; and how to work with special educators regarding such things as pupil grading, scheduling, and record keeping.

There are many resource people in the community who can contribute to providing inservice training for regular educators. Special educators can help, as well as other regular education teachers who have had some experience with handicapped children. A valuable resource may be found in handicapped adults in the community who can provide help in management and human relationship training from unique perspectives.

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HIGHER EDUCATION FOR HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

Why are increased opportunities in higher education becoming available to handicapped persons?

During the past decade many institutions of higher education have reaffirmed their belief that education should be available to everybody in the community who wants to learn, including the handicapped. Some institutions voluntarily eliminated architectural barriers and provided support services such as attendant care, academic counseling, and remedial tutoring for students needing special services. But few colleges and universities were equipped to accommodate all the handicapped students who wished to enroll. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-112) held the promise of expanding educational opportunities for the handicapped, but little happened until 1977 when the regulations governing Section 504 of this Act were finally published. The regulations require that all institutions of higher education that receive federal funds make their programs accessible to handicapped persons. "Qualified handicapped persons may not, on the basis of handicap, be denied admission or be subjected to discrimination in admission or recruitment." (§84.42(a) of Section 504)

Higher education or *post secondary education* are terms that can be used to describe a variety of programs, including vocational education, 2 and 4 year college programs, advanced degree programs, and special programs for certain types of handicapped populations, as well as adult and continuing education.

Does program accessibility mean that every building on campus must be architecturally barrier free?

No. Program accessibility means that each program or activity, when viewed in its entirety, be readily accessible to handicapped persons. This does not mean that every building or area of a campus be barrier free. It does mean that all programs and activities must be available in an accessible location to handicapped people. For example, if there is no way for a student in a wheelchair to get to a biology laboratory on the third floor of a building, then similar laboratory facilities must be provided in a location where they can be reached. Other methods that can be used to achieve program accessibility include redesigning equipment, reassigning classes, and moving necessary student services to accessible locations.

What kind of support services are available to handicapped students at colleges and universities?

The range of support services or other activities covered under Section 504 include housing, house insurance, counseling, financial aid, physical education, academics, recreation, transportation, and other extracurricular activities or other postsecondary education programs. Many colleges and universities have created offices of handicapped student services that coordinate services and programs needed by handicapped students. Such services would include recruiting attendant care, readers for the blind, and interpreters for the deaf. Coordinating service may also mean making available remedial tutoring and referral to outside community agencies.

Several college programs have expanded their focus to include the total rehabilitation and social development of the individual. These programs have extended into the community and are now involved with providing transportation and community living services for their students. These comprehensive programs are the results of voluntary efforts, and do not reflect the requirements of Section 504.

Are there any college programs that accommodate learning disabled and mentally retarded students?

Yes. Recently, a number of special programs have been developed to provide these students with educational opportunities beyond those required by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, Public Law 94-142. A number of colleges and universities have indicated that they do have special admission policies and/or programs for postsecondary students with learning disabilities. These programs offer such services as educational diagnostic clinics, diagnostic and prescriptive teaching services, learning disabilities resource

instructors, special education services, tutorial services, remedial reading programs, self paced instruction, and learning resource centers. These programs can be divided into two types: the first integrating learning disabled students into the regular program using support services and the second providing a special program designed exclusively for learning disabled students.

Several colleges across the country have joined a national program called College for Living that provides continuing education to mentally retarded adults. The courses are designed specifically for retarded students and therefore are only open to these individuals. Such courses teach such skills as how to enjoy leisure activities, how to function independently in the community, and how to participate in various sports.

How can I obtain more information about college programs for handicapped students in my local community?

Since most handicapped students are eligible for vocational rehabilitation services, they should ask their rehabilitation counselors about the local opportunities for higher education.

An information exchange dealing with questions related to handicapped individuals in higher education is being sponsored by the American Association for Higher Education. The phone number is (202) 293-6447 and it is open from 1:00 PM-5:00 PM Tuesday, Wednesday, and Friday.

Information on programs for the learning disabled can be obtained by sending for a copy of *A National Directory of Four Year Colleges, Two Year Colleges, and Post High School Training Programs for Young People with Learning Disabilities* from Partners in Publishing, PO Box 50347, Tulsa OK 74150.

Information about the College for Living programs for the mentally retarded can be obtained from: College for Living, Metropolitan State College, 1006 11th Street, Box 9, Denver CO 80204.

A resource that can be found in the library is *The College Guide for Students with Disabilities: A Detailed Directory of Higher Education Services, Programs, and Facilities Accessible to Handicapped Students in the United States*, by Gollay and Bennett.

Getting through College with a Disability: A Guide to College/Career Programs for Deaf Students, 1978 Edition, provides a brief description of 60 postsecondary programs with special services for deaf students in the United States and Canada. It can be ordered free of charge from Captioned Films for the Deaf Distribution Center, 5034 Wisconsin Avenue, NW, Washington DC 20016.

A Summary of Services Available on 500 Campuses for Students with Handicapping Conditions is distributed free of charge from the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, 1111 20th St., NW, Washington DC 20210.

Handicapped College Students is a 100 citation computer search reprint available from The Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Drive, Reston VA 22091 ($10.00 advance payment required).

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

What Is Bilingual Education?

Bilingual education refers to school programs for linguistically different children that employ two languages as the media of instruction. One language is English; the other is the dominant or native language spoken in the student's home environment. Some children enter bilingual programs with no knowledge of English, whereas others may have some rudimentary English language skills.

Why Is Bilingual Education Necessary?

Linguistically different children who speak little or no English cannot understand other children or lessons that are presented in English. Not only are these children faced with having to learn new subject matter, but they must also learn a new language, and often a new culture. It is likely that many of these children will not be able to keep up with the school work and will drop out of school unless there is appropriate intervention. The 1974 Commission on Civil Rights estimated that there were five million linguistically different children in the United States. Evidence exists that 45% of Mexican American children drop out of school before the 12th grade and the attrition rate for the Native American student is 55%. While language differences may not be the sole contributor to the academic problems of these children, it is considered by many to be a major factor.

What Are the Goals of Bilingual Education?

Two different philosophies are currently shaping programs in bilingual education: the transitional approach and the maintenance approach.

Transitional Programs. Transitional programs emphasize bilingual education as a means of moving from the culture and language most commonly used for communication in the home to the mainstream of American language and culture. Thus the major goal of a transitional program is to enable the linguistically different child to function in English. The dominant language of the home is used only to help the child make the transition to the English language. In this type of program, the child receives instruction in both languages. The dominant language is gradually phased out as the child becomes more proficient in English.

Maintenance Programs. In contrast to the transitional approach, which has an assimilation orientation, maintenance programs assume a pluralistic approach. The goal of a maintenance program is for the linguistically different child to function in both bilingual and bicultural environments. The child's native language and culture are taught concurrently with English and the mainstream culture. The student who completes such a program should be able to function in two languages and at least two cultures.

Garcia (1976) suggested that while program goals may tend to differ, bilingual programs should focus on three humanistic values:

1. Accepting the student's home language.
2. Respecting the student's culture and ethnicity.
3. Enhancing the student's self concept.

Why Is Bicultural Education Often Listed with Bilingual Education?

While most bilingual educators favor maintenance programs, the majority of the programs in existence tend to be transitional. Lack of trained personnel and inadequate funds to support maintenance programs are reasons frequently cited for the predominance of transitional programs. Bilingual educators, however, strongly support the use of bicultural programs even within the transitional framework. A bicultural emphasis provides the student with a recognition of the value and worth of his or her family's culture and enhances the development or maintenance of a positive self concept.

What Was the 1974 Lau v. Nichols Supreme Court Decision About?

In 1974 a class action suit in behalf of 1,800 Chinese children was brought before the Supreme Court. The plaintiffs claimed that the San Francisco Board of Education failed to provide programs designed to meet the linguistic needs of these non-English speaking children. This failure, they claimed, was in violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment. They argued that if the children could not understand the language used for instruction, they were deprived of an education equal to that of other children and were, in essence, doomed to failure.

The School Board defended its policy by stating that the children received the same education afforded other children in the district. The position the Board assumed was that a child's inability to comprehend English when entering school was not

the responsibility of the school, but rather the responsibility of the child and the family. In a unanimous decision, the Supreme Court stated that "Under state imposed standards, there was no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education." While the Court did not mandate bilingual education for non-English speaking or limited-English speaking students, it did stipulate that special language programs were necessary if schools were to provide equal educational opportunity for such students. School districts with more than 25 minority students must provide a special language program in all academic areas. Hence, the *Lau* decision gave considerable impetus to the development of bilingual education programs.

What Are the Lau Centers?

Nine Lau National Origin Desegregation Assistance Centers were established in 1975 and funded through the US Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The centers are located in New York City, Coral Gables, Milwaukee, Denver, Albuquerque, San Antonio, San Diego, Berkeley, and Seattle. These centers serve as helping agencies responsible for providing technical assistance to school districts with enrollments of limited- and non-English speaking children, as well as underachieving linguistically different children.

How Does Legislation Related to Special Education Affect Bilingual Education?

Among the many provisions of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, is a provision which mandates a free and appropriate education to all handicapped children. While *appropriate* is not defined as such in the act, the term receives its definition through the Individualized Education Program (IEP) requirement prescribed for each handicapped child. The IEP must address the individual needs of each child rather than an entire class or category of children. The IEP requires a statement of the specific educational services to be provided in order to meet the student's unique educational needs. Thus, if a handicapped youngster is linguistically different, appropriate programs or services should be written into that student's IEP.

Section 504 of Public Law 93-112, the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, is the basic civil rights provision aimed at terminating discrimination against America's handicapped citizens. The act prohibits exclusion from participation, denial of benefits, or any other form of discrimination against individuals solely by reason of their handicap. Any program receiving federal financial assistance that is in violation of this regulation may be subject to discontinuation of all federal funds. With a presidential recommendation of 174 million dollars earmarked for bilingual education in fiscal year 1980, it is apparent that handicapped children are entitled to considerable services in the area of bilingual education.

Why Is Bilingual Education of Concern to Special Education?

A number of studies support the contention that there is a disproportionate number of minority students in special education classes. A large number of these students come from linguistically different backgrounds. There is little doubt that there are many special education students who are not receiving an appropriate education because their bilingual educators have not had an adequate background in special education and their special education teachers have had little if any background in bilingual education.

What Can Be Done To Improve Services to Linguistically Different Exceptional Children?

There are a number of things that can be done to open the door to better programing for linguistically different exceptional children. Better communication and dialogue between the disciplines of special education and bilingual education can start the process. Other specific steps to improve services include:

- More preservice training of all educators in both bilingual and special education.
- More teacher training programs to train teachers, psychologists, and other support personnel in both bilingual and special education.
- The recruitment of special educators who are bilingual to work with linguistically different exceptional learners.
- Inservice programs in the public schools to provide regular education teachers, administration, and support personnel with backgrounds in both special and bilingual education.
- Inservice programs for bilingual educators and for special educators to provide both with insight, understanding, and in some instances training in the other's discipline.

Where Can You Get More Information?

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1500 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 802, Rosslyn VA 22209 (800-336-4560)

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